



Research paper

Facile synthesis of heterostructured YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag photocatalysts with enhanced visible-light photocatalytic performanceYu Gao^a, Junying Lin^a, Qingzhe Zhang^{b,*}, He Yu^a, Fu Ding^{a,*}, Baotong Xu^a, Yaguang Sun^{a,*}, Zhenhe Xu^{a,*}^a The Key Laboratory of Inorganic Molecule-Based Chemistry of Liaoning Province, College of Applied Chemistry, Shenyang University of Chemical Technology, Shenyang, 110142, China^b Institut National de la Recherche Scientifique (INRS), Centre Énergie Matériaux et Télécommunications, Université du Québec, 1650 Boulevard Lionel-Boulet, Varennes, Québec J3X1S2, Canada

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ABSTRACT

A series of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composite photocatalysts with various concentrations of YVO₄ (YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag) were synthesized for the first time by hydrothermal and the photodeposition method. The photocatalytic activity of the as-prepared YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composites was evaluated by the degradation of methyl orange (MO) under visible light irradiation. It shows that the photocatalytic activity of g-C₃N₄ can be largely enhanced by loading Ag nanoparticles (NPs) and YVO₄ NPs together. The optimized loading content of YVO₄ is 35 wt%, and the highest rate constant shown in 35 wt% YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag is 0.03404 min⁻¹, about 3 times and 2.1 times higher than that in g-C₃N₄ (0.01131 min⁻¹) and g-C₃N₄/Ag (0.01613 min⁻¹), respectively. The surface plasmon resonance (SPR) of Ag NPs and efficiently suppressed recombination of charge carriers due to the introduction of YVO₄ NPs make the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag nanocomposite photocatalysts exhibit excellent visible photocatalytic performance and excellent photocatalytic stability. In addition, the trapping experiments using different scavengers showed that the reactive O₂^{•-} and [•]OH play the major role in the photodegradation of MO.

1. Introduction

In the modern society, energy crisis and environmental pollution have become the vital problems facing human beings [1–4]. Exploring an efficient way to solve these two problems has been one of the hottest research topics [5]. Photocatalysis is attracting more and more attention in photodegradation of organic pollutants for environmental remediation due to the redox capacity of photocatalysts driven by solar energy [1,6–9]. Up to date, considerable efforts have been made to develop green, renewable, efficient and broadband photocatalysts.

As two-dimensional (2D) nanosheets of tri-s-triazine, polymeric graphitic carbon nitride (g-C₃N₄) has been considered as one “sustainable” material for photocatalysis, because of its facile preparation process and the abundant and low-cost raw material [10,11]. Furthermore, being different from other polymer materials, the g-C₃N₄ possesses thermal stability, as well as acidic and alkaline resistance. But above all, the g-C₃N₄ can absorb visible light up to 450 nm due to its relatively narrow band gap (2.7 eV) [12], and has been recognized as one of the potential candidates of visible-light photocatalysts. However, there are still some shortcomings that restrict the practical applications

of g-C₃N₄, such as the small surface area, high recombination rate of photogenerated electron-hole pairs, and the poor absorption of the visible light with the wavelength longer than 450 nm [13–16]. To address these issues, numerous strategies have been proposed to facilitate the charge carriers separation and transportation and extend the absorption range towards longer wavelengths, for example, the coupling with narrower-band gap semiconductors, doping with metallic and nonmetallic elements, and introducing carbonaceous material [17–22], etc.

Recently, the orthovanadates, such as BiVO₄, InVO₄ and YVO₄, etc., have been studied as photocatalysts with good performance in the water splitting and/or photodegradation [23–25]. It is known that YVO₄ has a wide band gap (3.38 eV), which can only be excited by UV light, but the excited charge carriers exhibit stronger redox capability [25,26]. Therefore, the coupling of g-C₃N₄ with YVO₄ is a possible approach to make the composite possess improved visible-light photocatalytic activity, which has been seldom reported yet. However, the limited range in the utilization of visible light and the fast recombination of charge carriers remain unsolved through the combination of g-C₃N₄ and YVO₄.

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The noble metallic nanoparticles (NPs), such as Au and Ag, have attracted considerable attention to enhancing the visible light activity of photocatalysts due to their surface plasmon resonance (SPR) effect [27–32]. In the case of Ag/g-C₃N₄, Ag NP can broaden the light absorption of g-C₃N₄ over a wide range via the SPR effect; furthermore, Ag NP can act as the electron reservoir, promoting the transfer of charge carriers and suppress their recombination [33,34]. For example, Chen et al. reported that the photocatalytic performance of g-C₃N₄ could be enhanced by introducing the Ag NPs in the degradation of Rhodamine B [35]. Zhu et al. prepared Ag@C₃N₄ core-shell plasmonic composite and obtained enhanced photocatalytic activity originated from a combined result of the SPR effect of Ag and hybrid effect from C₃N₄ [33].

In this paper, the ternary composite of heterostructured YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag photocatalyst was designed and synthesized for the first time. A series of composite photocatalysts with 2 wt% Ag and various amount of YVO₄ were prepared by the hydrothermal and photodeposition method. The composite photocatalysts exhibited enhanced photocatalytic performance in the degradation of methyl orange (MO) under visible-light irradiation (> 420 nm), remarkably suggesting that the combined effects of the SPR of Ag NPs and the coupling with YVO₄ NPs which efficiently suppress the charge carriers recombination. Moreover, the possible mechanism involved in the photocatalytic reaction was proposed in detail.

2. Experimental details

2.1. Materials

The initial chemicals, including Y₂O₃ (≥99.99%) which was purchased from GZSUNKO new material company, and other chemicals were purchased from Beijing Chemical Company, China. All chemicals were reagent grade and were used directly without further purification. Rare earth chloride stock solutions (0.2 M) were prepared by dissolving the corresponding metal oxide in HCl acid under stirring.

2.2. Preparation of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag nanocomposites

The synthesis procedures of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag nanocomposites are shown in Fig. 1. The g-C₃N₄ was obtained by calcining a certain amount of urea. Typically, 5 g of urea was placed in a covered alumina crucible and thermally treated at 550 °C for 4 h with a heating rate of 1 °C min^{−1} under air atmosphere. The yellow-colored product was collected and ground into powder for further use.

The YVO₄/g-C₃N₄ nanocomposites were prepared by a hydrothermal method. Typically, 0.25 g of g-C₃N₄ was dispersed into 20 mL of deionized water under ultrasonication for 0.5 h, and then YCl₃ solution and NH₄VO₃ were added slowly to the dispersion with the same molar of Y³⁺ and V⁵⁺. After ultrasonication for another 0.5 h, the mixture was transferred into a 100 mL a Teflon bottle held in a stainless steel autoclave, sealed, and maintained at 180 °C for 6 h. After naturally cooling down to room temperature, the solid product was collected and washed thoroughly by centrifugation with deionized water, and then dried at 80 °C for 12 h. For comparison, pure YVO₄ was prepared using the same method, except for not adding g-C₃N₄ sheets to the YVO₄ solution.

The YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag photocatalysts were prepared by a simple photodeposition method. As photodeposition is an appropriate approach to prevent NPs from aggregation, it can be used to prepare supported Ag NPs with highly dispersed active sites [36]. Specifically, the as-prepared YVO₄/g-C₃N₄ powder (0.10 g) was dispersed into the AgNO₃ aqueous solution. The resulting suspension was irradiated under a 300W Xe lamp for 2 h. Then the powder separated by centrifugation was washed with deionized water. Finally, the product was dried at 80 °C for 12 h.

2.3. Characterization

The X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the samples were recorded on a D8 Focus diffractometer (Bruker) with use of Cu K α radiation (λ = 0.154 nm). Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectra were measured with a Nicolet Magna 560 infrared spectrophotometer with the KBr pellet technique. ESCALAB 250 spectrometer (Thermo Electron Corporation, UK) equipped with an Al K α source and a charge neutralizer was used to measure X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) and ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS). All the spectra were calibrated to the C1s peak at 284.6 eV of the adventitious carbon. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) was performed by using an FEI Tecnai G² S-Twin instrument with a field emission gun operating at 200 kV. Images were acquired digitally on a Gatan multipole CCD camera. The UV–vis diffuse reflectance spectra (DRS) of catalysts were recorded on a UV–vis spectrometer (U-4100; HITACHI, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with an integrating sphere. The photoluminescence (PL) spectra were measured by using a fluorescence spectrophotometer (F4600, Hitachi, Japan) with the excitation wavelength of 300 nm.

2.4. Photocatalytic experiment and the detection of active species

The photocatalytic performances of the as-prepared YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag photocatalysts were investigated by photodegrading MO dye in aqueous solution. 20 mg of the as-prepared photocatalysts were added to 20 mL of the MO aqueous solution (20 mg L^{−1}) in a quartz flask (50 mL in capability), and was magnetically stirred for 30 min in the dark to reach the desorption–absorption equilibrium. A 300 W xenon lamp filtered by a UV cut-off filter (λ > 420 nm) was used as the visible light source. At certain time intervals, 0.6 mL of the reaction solution was taken out and centrifuged to remove the catalyst, then analyzed on UV–vis spectrometer to detect the residual concentration of MO in the solution. In addition, in order to detect the generated active species in the photocatalysis, 1,4-benzoquinone (BQ) (1 mM), disodium ethylenediaminetetraacetate (Na₂EDTA) (1 mM), and tert-butyl alcohol (t-BuOH) (1 mM) were used as superoxide radical ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$), hole, and hydroxyl radical ($\cdot\text{OH}$) scavengers, respectively, with all other conditions being the same.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Characterization of prepared samples

The crystallinity and phase purity of the as-prepared samples were characterized by XRD (Fig. 2). For the pure YVO₄ (Fig. 2A), it can be



Fig. 1. Schematic illustration for the synthesis of the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag nanocomposite.

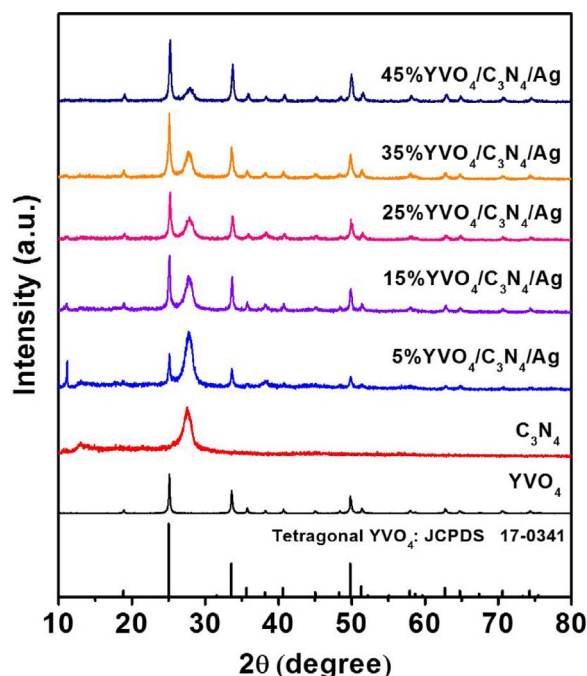


Fig. 2. XRD patterns of YVO₄, g-C₃N₄, and YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag samples with different contents of YVO₄ from 15 wt% to 45 wt%.

seen that all the diffraction peaks of the sample can be readily indexed to a pure tetragonal phase of YVO₄ (space group: *I*4₁/*amd*) according to the JCPDS file No. 17-0341 (*a* = *b* = 7.1192 Å and *c* = 6.2898 Å). The well-resolved diffraction peaks, no peaks shifts, and other impurity phases appearance indicates the high crystallinity and purity of the as-prepared sample [37]. As for the pure g-C₃N₄ sample (Fig. 2B), it shows diffraction peaks at 13.1° and 27.4°, which can be indexed as the (100) crystal plane of tri-s-triazine units and the (002) diffraction for inter-layer stacking of aromatic systems of graphitic materials, respectively [38,39]. For the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composites (Fig. 2C–G), the XRD patterns show YVO₄ and g-C₃N₄ phases. With an increasing amount of YVO₄ from 5.0% to 45.0%, the diffraction peaks of YVO₄ are intensified gradually, whereas the peaks of g-C₃N₄ are weakened. However, due to the quiet low loading amount and the overlapping of diffraction peaks in all these samples, the diffractions of Ag NPs could not be observed. The peaks at 27.4° in YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag samples suggest that the structure of g-C₃N₄ is not changed by the hydrothermal treatment.

For further confirming the formation of the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composites, the FT-IR spectra of the as-prepared products were also measured (Fig. 3). As shown in Fig. 3A, the YVO₄ sample has a strong characteristic peak at 820 cm^{−1}, which can be attributed to the V–O stretching vibration mode (from the VO₄^{3−} group) [40]. For the bare g-C₃N₄ sample (Fig. 3B), the peak at 812 cm^{−1} is attributed to the characteristic breathing modes of triazine units [41]. The peaks at 1641, 1580, 1465, 1404, 1323, and 1242 cm^{−1} are associated with the stretching vibrations of CN heterocycles [42]. The broad peak at 3000–3650 cm^{−1} was assigned to the stretching vibration modes of terminal N–H and O–H [43]. All the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composites exhibit similar peaks as the g-C₃N₄ sample. With the increase of YVO₄ amount, this band was affected and shifted towards the higher wave-number due to the presence of the absorption band of YVO₄ at 820 cm^{−1}. This is another evidence for the introduction of YVO₄ into g-C₃N₄.

The surface chemical composition and status of elements in the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag sample were further analyzed by XPS (Fig. 4). Fig. 4a shows the XPS survey spectrum of the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composite, which suggests that sample primarily consists of Y, V, O, C, N and Ag elements without other impurities. As displayed in Fig. 4B, the V2p

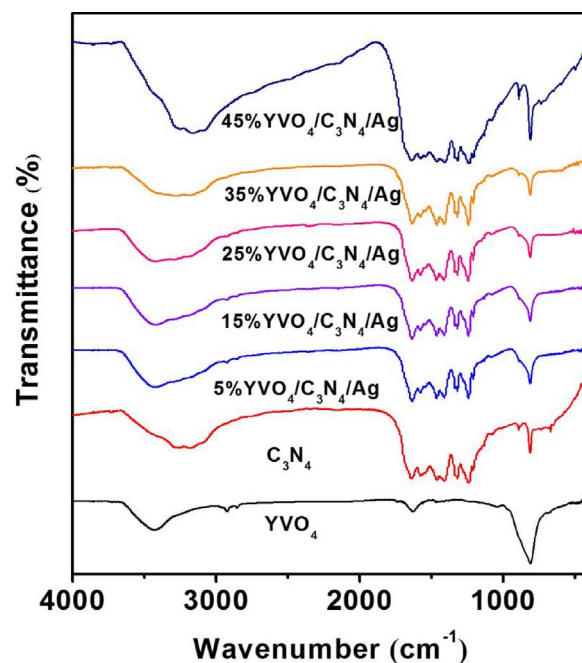


Fig. 3. FT-IR spectra of YVO₄, g-C₃N₄, and YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag samples with different contents of YVO₄ from 15 wt% to 45 wt%.

states split into two lines V2p_{1/2} (524.6 eV) and V2p_{3/2} (517.1 eV) with an energy splitting of 7.5 eV because of the spin-orbit interactions [44,45]. In addition, the difference of binding energy between the V2p_{3/2} and the O 1s (530.0 eV) is about 12.9 eV, confirming the presence of V⁵⁺ oxidation state [44]. Fig. 4C shows that the Y3d state was fitted into two peaks, Y3d_{3/2} (159.3 eV), and Y3d_{5/2} (157.2 eV). Meanwhile, the ultraviolet photoelectron spectroscopy (UPS) was carried out to determine the VB position of YVO₄ (Fig. 4D). The VB maximum potential was calculated to be 2.61 eV, which is consistent with the previously reported work [44].

The morphology and microstructure of the as-prepared samples were further observed by TEM technique (Fig. 5). For YVO₄ sample (Fig. 5A), irregularly shaped nanoparticles can be observed. Fig. 5B shows the typical TEM image of g-C₃N₄, which exhibited 2D sheet-like nanostructures with transparent thin layers resembling the graphene nanosheets. Upon incorporating Ag NPs, the TEM image (Fig. 5C) shows that the Ag NPs are uniformly dispersed on the surface of g-C₃N₄ nanosheets. The YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composite with the YVO₄ NPs and Ag NPs supported on the g-C₃N₄ nanosheets is displayed in Fig. 5D. It can be seen that the YVO₄ NPs and Ag NPs were randomly distributed on the surface of g-C₃N₄ sheets. The TEM characterization also confirms the successful synthesis of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composites, which are consistent with the XRD and FT-IR analysis. The high-resolution TEM (HRTEM) image of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag displays the inter-layer and spatial arrangement of these three components (Fig. 5E). The lattice fringes with inter-plane distances of 0.32 nm and 0.24 nm correspond to the (200) planes in the tetragonal YVO₄ structure [46], and the (111) plane of the face-centered cubic Ag NPs [47], respectively. Furthermore, the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composite was ultra-sonicated for 1 h for TEM analysis, indicating that the interaction among these three components is very strong, which is particularly favorable for the photocatalysis.

The optical absorption properties of all the samples were measured by the UV–vis spectrometer (Fig. 6). Fig. 6A shows the UV–vis absorption spectra of pure g-C₃N₄, g-C₃N₄/Ag and the YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag with different YVO₄ contents. As shown in the absorption spectra, pure g-C₃N₄ and all the samples contain g-C₃N₄ show visible light absorption with absorption edge around 465 nm. For the samples with Ag, the extra broad absorption band centers at ~500 nm was also observed,

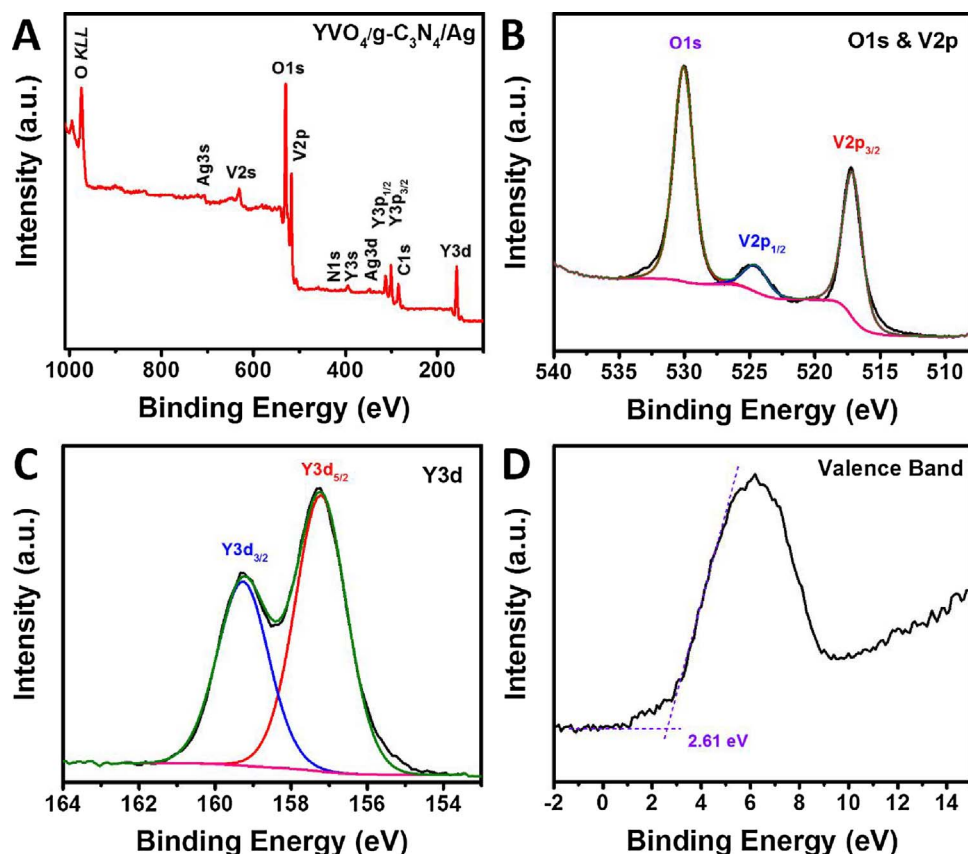


Fig. 4. (A) XPS survey spectra, (B) high-resolution O 1s and V 2p, (C) high-resolution Y 3d of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag, and (D) UPS spectrum of YVO₄ to determine its VB position.

which is attributed to the SPR of Ag NPs [48–50]. As shown in Fig. 6B, the YVO₄ can only absorb the UV light with the absorption edge around 363 nm. According to the Kubelka-Munk function [39], the band gap energy of YVO₄ can be estimated to be 3.42 eV. Considering that the VB maximum of YVO₄ is 2.61 eV and its band gap energy is 3.42 eV, the CB minimum is calculated to be −0.81 eV.

3.2. Photocatalytic performance

The photocatalytic activity of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag composite was

assessed by the photodegradation of MO at room temperature under visible light ($\lambda > 420$ nm) irradiation. Meanwhile, we also tested the blank experiment under the same condition to investigate the photostability and chemical stability of MO. After 120 min, no MO was degraded without the help of the photocatalyst, indicating that MO is a suitable model dye with high stability under visible light irradiation. Fig. 6A shows the decrease of MO concentration as a function of time over different photocatalysts. The concentration of MO is unchanged after 2 h in the presence of YVO₄ under visible light irradiation. As expected, the g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄/Ag show visible light activity in the

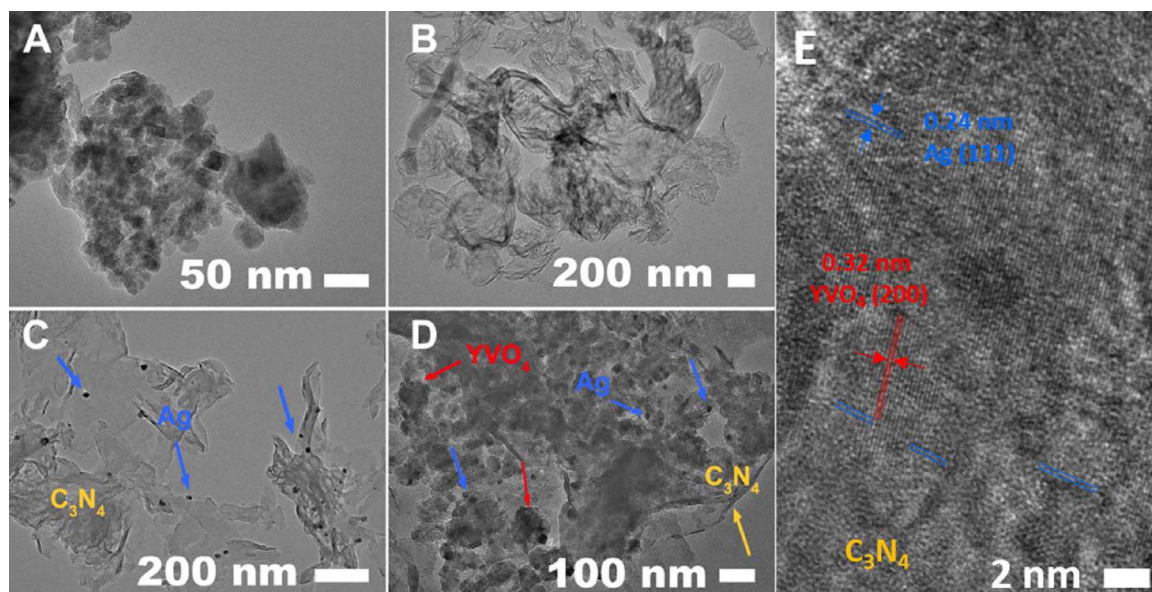


Fig. 5. TEM images of (A) YVO₄, (B) g-C₃N₄, (C) g-C₃N₄/Ag, (D) YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag, and (E) HRTEM image of YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag sample.

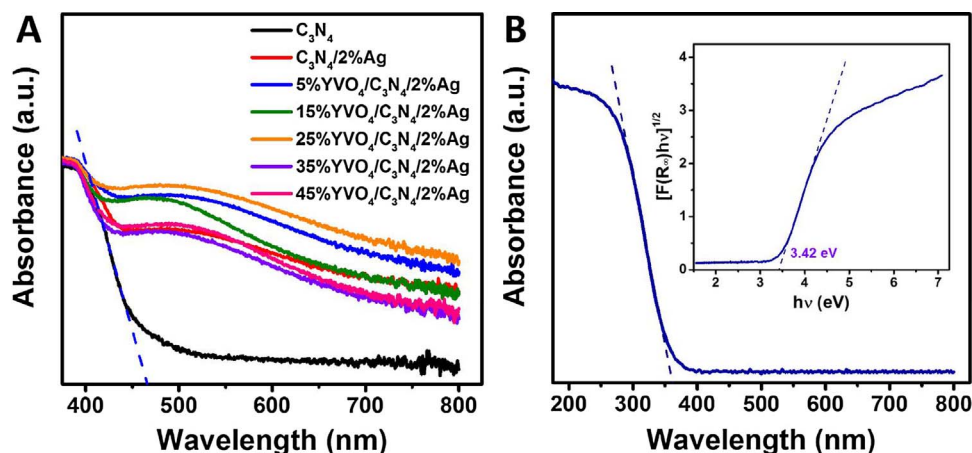


Fig. 6. Absorption spectra of (A) g-C₃N₄ and YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag samples with different contents of YVO₄ from 15 wt% to 45 wt%, and (B) YVO₄ sample. The inset in (B) is the $(\alpha h\nu)^2$ vs $h\nu$ curve to calculate the band gap of YVO₄.

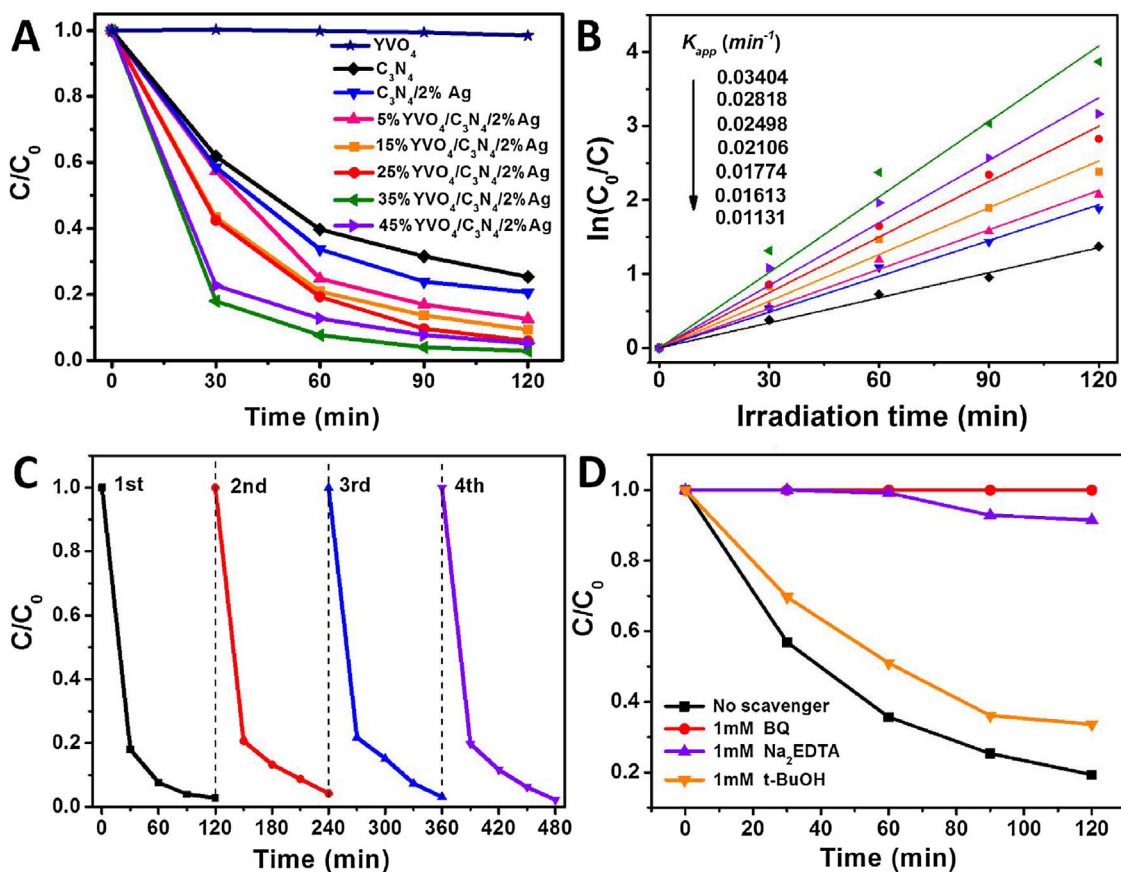


Fig. 7. (A) The photodegradation activities of MO as a function of time over different photocatalysts under visible light irradiation, (B) plot of $\ln(C_0/C)$ vs time and the apparent reaction rate constant, (C) cycling runs of 35 wt%YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag photocatalyst in the photodegradation of MO, and (D) photodegradation of MO in the presence of three types of scavengers and 35 wt%YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag photocatalyst under visible light irradiation.

photocatalytic degradation of MO. After the introduction of YVO₄, the photocatalytic degradation rate was increased compared with the g-C₃N₄ and g-C₃N₄/Ag samples, because of the restrained recombination of charge carriers. The optimal content of YVO₄ in YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag was found to be 35 wt% by comparing their photocatalytic efficiency in the degradation of MO solution.

With increasing the concentration of YVO₄ over 35%, the photocatalytic degradation rate starts to decrease, which is because that the covering of excessive YVO₄ on the surface of g-C₃N₄ leads to the poor optical penetration.

For the kinetic study of different photocatalysts, the photocatalysis data were fitted with the pseudo-first-order model (Fig. 5B). The

equation is $\ln(C_0/C) = kt$, where C_0 and C are the concentrations of MO at irradiation time of 0 and t , respectively, and k is the apparent reaction rate constant. Fig. 5B shows that the photocatalytic degradation of MO, in the presence of as-prepared photocatalysts under visible light irradiation, which matches well with the pseudo-first-order model. As displayed in Fig. 5C, the highest rate constant (0.03404 min⁻¹) is achieved by the 35% YVO₄/g-C₃N₄/Ag sample, which is about 3 times higher than the pure g-C₃N₄ sample (0.01131 min⁻¹), and about 2.1 times higher than the g-C₃N₄/Ag sample (0.01613 min⁻¹). To be served as a good photocatalyst, except for the enhanced visible light activity, the reusability and stability are also extremely important. The photocatalytic degradation of MO under visible light was carried out for 4

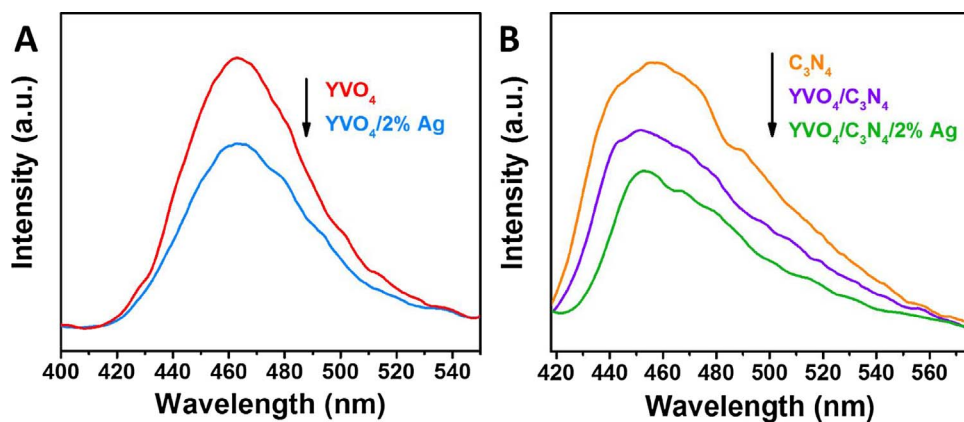


Fig. 8. PL spectra of the (A) YVO_4 and YVO_4/Ag samples, and (B) $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and 35 wt% $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ samples.

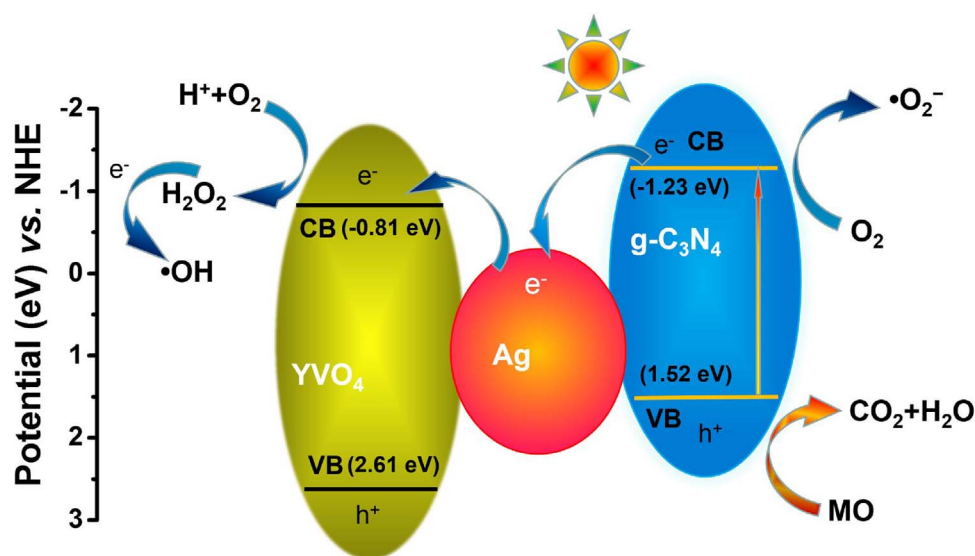


Fig. 9. Photocatalytic mechanism scheme over $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ photocatalyst under visible-light irradiation.

cycles in the presence of 35% $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ photocatalyst (Fig. 5C). After 4 consecutive cycles, the 35% $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ still shows very high photocatalytic degradation rate of MO. This result indicates that the as-prepared $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ photocatalyst possesses excellent reusability and photostability.

In order to detect the main active species in the photocatalytic process, such as photogenerated holes, superoxide radicals ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$) and hydroxyl radicals ($\cdot\text{OH}$), the trapping experiments in the presence of various scavengers were operated. As shown in Fig. 7, under the visible light irradiation of the as-prepared $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ photocatalyst, the photodegradation rate of MO was slightly suppressed by the addition of $\cdot\text{OH}$ radical scavenger (t-BuOH, 1 mM), which reveals that $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals are not the main active species for the photodegradation of MO in current photocatalytic systems. However, in the presence of the $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ radical scavenger (BQ, 1 mM) and the hole scavenger (Na_2EDTA , 1 mM), the photodegradation rate of MO was decelerated significantly, with the photocatalytic degradation rate being reduced by 67.2% and 37.1%, respectively. It means that the $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ and $\cdot\text{OH}$ radicals play the major roles in the photodegradation of MO over the as-prepared $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ photocatalyst under visible light irradiation.

The PL spectra are widely employed to evaluate the separation efficiency of charge carriers in photocatalysts [51–53]. The PL spectra of YVO_4 , YVO_4/Ag , $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$, $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and 35 wt% $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ samples are shown in Fig. 8. After 300 nm excitation, all samples exhibit broad emission peaks in the range of 400–550 nm, representing that the photo-excited electrons recombine with holes. As shown in Fig. 8A, the PL intensity decreases after the introduction of Ag NPs. As

for the $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample, the loading of YVO_4 and Ag NPs both make the PL emissions quench (Fig. 8B), which indicates that the charge carriers recombination in 35 wt% $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ was largely suppressed compared with $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ or YVO_4 .

3.3. Possible photocatalytic mechanism

On the basis of the above experimental results, the possible mechanism of photocatalytic degradation of MO under visible light irradiation is proposed (Fig. 9). According to the published work, the VB maximum and CB minimum potentials of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ were at +1.52 eV and −1.23 eV [25,39], whereas the VB and CB edge potentials of YVO_4 were calculated by the combination of the band gap and UPS measurement to be at −0.81 and +2.61 eV, respectively. For the $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ sample, under visible light irradiation, only the electrons in the VB of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ can be excited to the CB of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and partially react with O_2 directly to produce $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ radicals [51–53]. Due to the difference between the CB edge potentials of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ and YVO_4 , the excited electrons can be easily transferred from the CB of $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ to the CB of YVO_4 , greatly suppressing the recombination of photoinduced electrons and holes. For the $\text{YVO}_4/\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4/\text{Ag}$ composites, Ag NPs are deposited on the surface of YVO_4 and can act as an electron transportation bridge to facilitate the efficient separation of charge carriers in $\text{g-C}_3\text{N}_4$ [39]. Moreover, the deposition of Ag NPs can significantly enhance the visible-light absorption due to the SPR effect [31,39,54]. As the electrons in the CB of YVO_4 has more negative potential (−0.81 eV) than $\text{O}_2/\cdot\text{O}_2^-$ (−0.33 eV), the electrons were used for the production of $\cdot\text{O}_2^-$

radicals by reacting with O_2 . The produced $\cdot O_2^-$ can accept another electron from H^+ to form H_2O_2 , which can be further activated to $\cdot OH$ radicals [55,56]. The electrons in the CB of YVO_4 can also directly react with adsorbed O_2 in the presence of H^+ to generate H_2O_2 and then produce $\cdot OH$ radicals [51–53]. The holes left in the VB of $g-C_3N_4$ can directly attack the MO. With increasing the loading amount of YVO_4 over 35 wt%, the excessive YVO_4 could cover the surface of $g-C_3N_4$ and limited the light hitting the surface of $g-C_3N_4$. Hence, the optimal loading amount of YVO_4 in the $YVO_4/g-C_3N_4/Ag$ sample is 35 wt%.

4. Conclusions

In summary, a series of novel $YVO_4/g-C_3N_4/Ag$ composite photocatalyst with different contents of YVO_4 were successfully synthesized by a simple hydrothermal and photodeposition approach. The as-prepared composite shows excellent visible light photocatalytic performance and reusability in the degradation of MO due to the SPR effect of Ag NP as well as the charge transfer between the three components. The loading amount of YVO_4 was optimized and 35% $YVO_4/g-C_3N_4/Ag$ sample exhibited the highest degradation rate of MO. The possible mechanism of the photocatalytic reaction was also proposed. Based on the results, the $YVO_4/g-C_3N_4/Ag$ composite is expected to be an effective visible-light photocatalyst for environmental remediation.

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